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ABSTRACT

Four issues of "TESL Reporter" are presented. Contents include the following articles: "An Approach to the [I] [i] Contrast" by William D. Conway; "Native Language Environment Is Source of Confusion" by Alice Pack; "The Origin of Language: A Puzzle With Missing Pieces"; "Terminal Behavior and Language Teaching" by J. Donald Bowen; "Teaching and Testing" by Ted Plaister; "Tongan and Samoan 'Fai' Contrasted with English 'Do' and 'Make'" by Alice C. Pack; "Communication in Language Learning" by Gerald Dykstra; "Tonga II: Peace Corps Program" by Eric Shumway; "Grammars as Classifications" by Yao Shen; "Why Pattern Practice" by William D. Conway; "A Structural Comparison of English and Tongan" by Ermel J. Morton; "Controlled, Guided and Free Writing" by Richard Port; "Church College of Western Samoa Plans TESL Curriculum"; and "Teaching the 'th' of English" by Alice Pack. (SW)

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TESL REPORTER

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Reporter Focuses On Hawaii, Pacific

TESL Reporter is a publication of the English Language Institute and the Bachelor of Arts in Teaching English as a Second Language (BATESL) program of The Church College of Hawaii located in the windward community of Laie. The central focus of this publication is upon the methods and problems of TESL, mostly in Hawaii and in the Pacific Basin. Subsequent issues will contain practical lesson plans, news of the ELI and BATESL programs of Church College and of other institutions, articles on language and pedagogy, short papers by BATESL candidates, language news of Hawaii and the South Pacific, and other relevant articles of general interest.

It is intended that this publication will circulate throughout the Educational System of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints and among English teachers in the Hawaiian islands and elsewhere.

Articles revelant to language teaching and TESL may be sent to William Conway, Box 25, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages.

CCH Purchases $15,500 Laboratory

FL011152

A new thirty position language laboratory has been purchased from Harkan Hawaii, Inc. at a total cost of $15,500 for use of the Modern Language and English Language Institute programs at The Church College of Hawaii.

The former laboratory equipment is to be installed near its former site as an information retrieval center.

One of some fourteen such labs in Hawaii, The Church College laboratory will feature dual-channel magazine recorders which are audio-active, providing students with respond and compare features while eliminating the usual "reel" problems so characteristic of open tape recorders.

New Degree In TESL

Recognizing that the teaching of English to foreign students requires special training, the Church College of Hawaii has developed what is believed to be the first undergraduate program leading to a degree in teaching English as a second language. Beginning this fall semester the first candidates for this degree will enroll in the program.

The proposed curriculum for the BATESL degree includes a composite of emphasis on English, speech, linguistics, and history.

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TESL Reporter
STAFF

Editor.....William D. Conway, Assistant Professor of English and TESL
Staff.....Mrs. Alice Pack, Instructor of English and TESL

Articles relevant to language teaching and TESL may be submitted to the editor through Box 25, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages. Deadline for the winter edition is December 15, 1967.

Proposed BATESL Curriculum

(Continued from page 1)

Eng. 215	Factual & Creative Writing	2
Eng. 221	English Grammar	3
Eng. 251	Critical Intro. to Lit.	3
271/272	Masterpieces of Eng. Lit.	3
355/356	World Classics	3
361/362	Masterpieces of Amer. Lit.	3
Sp. 360	Phonetics	2
Lin. 300	Intro. to Linguistic Sci.	3
Lin. 400	Descriptive Linguistics	3
Hist. 350	Oceania (Student must take an anthropology or history course that will give cultural background to the intended teaching area.)	
Hist. 341	Asia II	3
Eng. 490B	Seminar--Extended reading in TESL	2
Electives	(In English, Speech, History and Anthropology)	4
	Total	34

Students will also take two specialized TESL courses while completing the requirements of the education department: Education 346, Observation and Participation; and Education 466, TESL Methods and Materials.

It is expected that many teachers who have previously graduated will want to take advantage of individual classes to further develop their proficiency in this key area in Pacific and Hawaiian education.

Noted Linguists To Visit CCH

Distinguished linguists from the Mainland and abroad attending the National Council of Teachers Of English pre-convention workshop in teaching English as a second language will spend the final day of the three day conference, November 22, at The Church College of Hawaii and the Polynesian Cultural Center. One of the main purposes of their visit will be to discuss and evaluate the new BATESL program.

According to Dr. Gerald Dkystra of Columbia University and the University of Hawaii, chairman of the workshop , the BATESL program and the college will be used as a laboratory situation in which the visiting linguists will attempt to set up what they believe would be an ideal program for the Church College and other institutions interested in training teachers of English as a second language. Recommendations are expected as to the content, materials, and the overall conception of such a program.

Among those visiting Laie will be Dr. Robert Lado, Dean of the School of Language and Linguistics at Georgetown; Dr. Edward M. Anthony, Chairman of the Linguistics Department at the University of Pittsburg; James Atatis, Chairman of the newly formed TESL Society; and Dr. Sittler, Chairman of MATESL and Director of the English Language Institute at the University of Hawaii. Over thirty delegates are expected to attend the meetings.

In the late afternoon and evening following the CCH sessions, the entire group as guests of The Church College of Hawaii will tour the Polynesian Cultural Center and attend the evening show.

By: William Conway

An Approach To The [I] in Contrast *

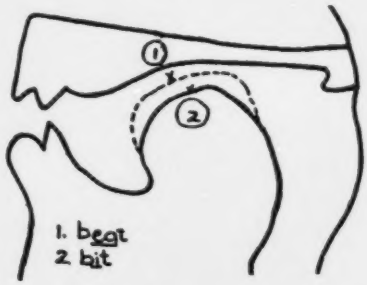
Lesson one is directed towards Polynesian students who have difficulty in recognizing and producing the contrast between [I] and [i] (see International Phonetic Alphabet). The basic premise of the lesson is that a student must learn to recognize a sound before he can produce it.

Lesson 1:

1. Pronounce "pick" and "peak" several times. Show pictures of the two objects to emphasize the fact that two different meanings are involved.
2. Place two columns of words on the board. Those in column A should be known sounds and those in column B the new sound. Read all the words in column A and then in column B before reading them in pairs to emphasize the contrast.

A	B
ease	is
sleep	slip
eat	it
leave	live
beat	bit
feet	fit

3. Describe the new sound. Emphasize the difference in tenseness and the height of the tongue. Use the teacher as an audio-visual aid. Demonstrate the change in facial feature and show the position of the tongue. The latter can be done with a pen or pencil. Further develop the student's concept through the use of an articulation diagram. See Fig. 1



(Fig. 1)

4. Repeat the minimal pair contrasts used in step 2. If the students seem to recognize the difference in the sounds, go on to step 5, if not, repeat steps 2 and 3.
5. Recognition Exercises: Utilize the two columns of minimal pairs previously placed on the blackboard. Use the following three exercises in the order given; leave out B if it proves too complicated for the students.
   a. Same or Different: Repeat a minimal pair contrast or the same twice, asking the students to say "same" or "different." For example: ease/ease, ease/is
   b. Same or different with three words: Ask the students to identify which two of three words are the same. Use hand signals or the numbers 1, 2, 3. Bit, bit, beat would be a 1, 2 sequence. As a variation ask the students to identify the one of the three that is different; this seems easier to handle and explain with some groups.
   c. A or B? Referring once again to the minimal pairs on the black-

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* This is the first of a series of lesson plans that will be featured in the TESL Reporter. Mr. Conway is the director of the English Language Institute at the Church College of Hawaii with four years of TESL experience here in Hawaii and in American Samoa. Manuscripts for this feature are needed. Submit your favorite for consideration.

(Continued from page 3)

board, repeat the words and ask the students to indicate which column a word is from. Mix up the sequence in such a way that the student must depend upon his knowledge of the sound rather than the pattern. Experiment by turning your back to the class; some students recognize the change in this pair through the external change in the mouth position. The student may signal his choice through hand signals or by giving the letter above each column.

6. Production

Exercise A: Referring to the two columns of words once again, direct the students to repeat the word in column B -- the new form -- when you say a word in column A. In addition, if you say the word in column B the student should simply repeat the word.

Exercise B: Model the words once more and have the students repeat after you. Now ask them to repeat the pairs to a neighbor who will in turn attempt to say them back.

Justification For The Approach

Minimal pairs are an excellent teaching device because they illustrate the phonemic system of the target language, the contrast used by the native speaker to distinguish different words.

Steps 1-4 are necessary to develop in the student's recognition of the sound. Once he can recognize the difference he has the foundation for learning to produce the sound. To the young Samoan student "eat" and "it" will sound identical until his ear is trained.

The use of a picture in step one and also in step two (where possible) will help to develop the student's concept of the differing meaning of the two words. He must be convinced of the importance of the difference or it may not seem worth learning.

In step 4 the tense/lax condition of the mouth and the height of the tongue are the only two features that can readily be described and taught to the student. The picture helps to get the point across, particularly to those students that only understand part of what the teacher says.

The student's skill in recognizing these sounds must be developed before production can be expected, hence the fifth step. All three exercises require the student to listen closely and carefully. The game-like element of this exercise is attractive to the students. These exercises give the teacher an accurate measure of the student's readiness to go on to production.

Exercise A in the sixth step gives the student opportunity to repeat the new form in a variety of circumstances that will keep him interested and develop his skill in production. (It would be well to preface this exercise by class concert recitation of the minimal pairs.) Exercise 6A gradually makes the student less dependent upon the teacher as a model.

Exercise B takes the student completely away from his model, the teacher. He now has an opportunity to practice--to produce--what he has been learning. His study partner can also be of some assistance if problems still exist.

Possible Weaknesses

The minimal pairs introduce -c endings which are not found in Samoan. None of the consonants used in the exercise are new to the student; all are found in his own language.

The student needs more work on production, particularly in phrases and in sentences. This doesn't seem possible in a 15 minute lesson.

By: Alice Pack

Native Language Environment Is Source Of Confusion

It has long been recognized that literal translating from one language to another is impossible. Even when one language vocabulary becomes a problem because of environmental distinctions, such concrete nouns as "table" or "desk" suggest different objects to each of our several sub-cultures--to one a low flat table just six inches from the floor, to another a long damask covered banquet table, to another a folding card table, etc. depending on the experiences of the hearer.

Even such apparently simple and obvious words as "yes" or "no" may have different meanings from those we are accustomed to. This is particularly true in English in comparison with pidgin, oriental, and Polynesian and Melanesian languages. When teachers often fail to recognize this difference, they feel that students can't understand a simple "yes' or "no" and, hence, underestimate the student's ability; at the same time, students are often discouraged when they fail to understand clearly and make a wrong response. Students often give up and decide that English is an impossible language to learn. There have been many Polynesian students at The Church College of Hawaii from high schools in the South Pacific who have not recognized these differences.

The use of "yes" and "no" in English (the "Ioe" of Samoan and the "Io" of Tongan) and in Polynesian languages is easily understood if one realizes the following: In Polynesian languages the "yes" and "no" refer to the meaning of the preceding utterance, and indicate the speaker's opinion of its correctness. For example, Tongan "Io" means "What you've just said is right;" "ikai" means "What you've said is wrong;" if a speaker says "He hasn't come, has he?" the answer is "Yes, he hasn't."

In English "yes" and "no" normally refer to the structure of the answer and indicate the speaker's intention of making a positive or negative statement. Thus an English "yes" is used regardless of the previous statement if the affirmative is indicated; "no" is the response if it is negative.

The answer in English depends

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Institute Director On Sabbatical

Ishmael Stagner, Director of the English Language Institute at The Church College of Hawaii for the past five years, left recently on a sabbatical leave to work on a Doctorate of Education at Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah.

"Ish" and his wife, Carmen, and new daughter, plan to spend one or two years on the Mainland to complete the degree before he returns to the teaching profession.

During his five years as director, he saw the Institute grow from an idea into a solid four-step sequence of classes that provide foreign students an opportunity to improve their English proficiency before launching themselves on the stormy (for them) seas of the English Department. The Institute now employs two full-time staff members and additional part-time staff as the need arises.

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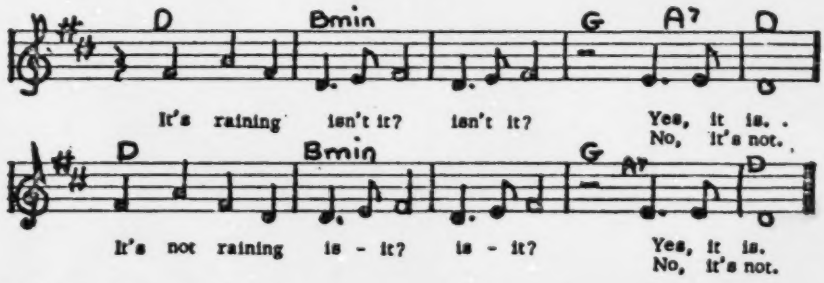
entirely on the situation rather than the previous utterance as it does in Polynesian languages. This distinction should be clearly explained and demonstrated in the first English lessons and periodically reviewed throughout the years of English study.

In the lower grades many Engish patterns might be introduced through songs and games. At present the Hawaii Curriculum Center is carrying on an experimental program with songs as one of its phases. As an interesting approach to the English "tag question" is the little ditty below.

The children demonstrate the situation through body actions. The teacher might present picture or stick drawings depicting various situations and students might sing the answers. Note that the intonation pattern is followed with "Yes, it is." and "No, it's not." giving normal timing and inflection.

ISN'T IT



Calif. to Use TESL

Beginning in the fall, California schools will be allowed to teach Mexican-American youngsters in Spanish, with English taught as a second language until the third or fourth grade. This is expected not only to help the children to understand the subject matter better, but to remove the psychological stigma of being made to feel that their own language is "bad."

Saturday Review July 1967, p.65

"Language Master" On CCH Campus

The new Bell and Howell language Master will make its first appearance on The Church College campus during fall semester. Six units have been ordered for use in the English Language Institute, Modern Language Department, and the Speech Department. Extensive use is planned for remedial work in the intensive program of the ELI. The Winter 1967 issue of the TESL Reporter will contain an evaluation of the successes of the machines in teaching English as a second language.

3 Steps To Sounds

There are three essential steps in teaching your students to make sounds. They must be able to 1) Hear the sound, 2) Identify the sound, 3) and Produce the sound.

'Correctness'

The only "correctness" there can be in any language is the actual usage of the native speakers of that language. In learning English one must attempt to imitate exactly the forms, the structures, and the mode of utterance of the native speakers of the particular kind of English he wishes to learn.

Fries, Teaching & Learning English As A Foreign Language

The Origin Of Language -- A Puzzle With Missing Pieces

What is the origin of languages? Did it by an evolutionary process evolve from a series of grunts? Did language perhaps begin with Adam and Eve speaking some sort of Hebrew in the Garden of Eden? Many theories have been advanced--some amusing, some thought provoking, some simply ridiculous--but all suffer from the same malady, a lack of documentary evidence.

Five of the best known theories enjoying some currency at the present time are the "bow-wow," "ding-dong," "pooh-pooh," "ta-ta," and "ye-he-ho" theories. The "bow-wow" theory holds that language began as an imitation of sounds occurring in nature, such as a dog barking. The "ding-dong" theory sustains that there is a mystic correlation between sound and meaning. The "pooh-pooh" theory is to the effect that language at first consisted of yells of surprise, fear, pleasure, pain, etc. The "yo-he-ho" theory holds that language arose from grunts of physical exertion. The "ta-ta" theory that language comes from imitation of bodily movements is the last of the list and it apparently originated with Charles Darwin.[1] Charlton Laird in The Miracle of Language says the unusual names are the result of satiric name calling by rival theorists.[2]

The range of speculation is well illustrated with the following examples from Mario Pei's The Story of Language. "Even as late as the seventeenth century, a Swedish philologist seriously maintained that in the Garden of Eden, God spoke Swedish, Adam Danish, and the serpent French, while at a Turkish linguistic congress held in 1934 it was seriously argued that Turkish is at the root of all languages, all words being derived from 'gunes,' the Turkish word for 'sun,' the first object to strike the human fancy and demand a name.3

That language did evolve from a primitive form such as was suggested in paragraph two seems logical and even theoretically necessary. Written records dating back over to 3000 B.C. have shown us that much linguistic change and development took place in this period of time. One can then hypothesize that in the eons of time before the invention of writing, similar changes may have affected a primitive language of grunts or other sounds

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and through the years a more sophisticated system gradually evolved. Anthropologists desiring to prove such a theory have sought evidence by attempting to locate a primitive language. They found that even among the most primitive Australian aborigines that language was relatively elaborate and sophisticated. One still seems dependent upon some theory, however, that involves an evolutionary process of language development, however long ago the historical beginning may have been.

Laird suggests that even though we don't know what happened in the early years of language certain conclusions can be drawn upon what we do know of documented language history. "The languages of the world fall into linguistic groups, which are parts of linguistic families, which belong to tribes of families, so that all languages appear to have descended from one universal parent language." Even this statement might be properly labeled as a "guess."

What is the origin of language? The only honest answer apparently is that no one knows and probably no one will ever know. Because the origin of language antedates writing by so many years, actual evidence will probably never be found to answer the question.

Footnotes:

1. Mario Pei, The Story of Language (Philadelphia, 1949) p. 15
2. Charlton Laird, p. 24
3. Pei, p. 15
4. Laird, p. 24

CCH'ers Train Corps Volunteers

Twenty-eight Tongan and Samoan students from The Church College of Hawaii have been hired by the Peace Corps on the island of Molokai as language instructors for over 150 Peace Corps Trainees headed for Western Samoa and Tonga. Each instructor teaches a group of six to eight students, four hours daily, using an intensive oral drill procedure.

Language material for the intensive classes is being prepared by Professor Eric Shumway of The Church College of Hawaii and Professor Ray L. Baird of the Linguistics Department of Brigham Young University. Both men are returned missionaries of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints and have spent two years living among the people of either Samoa or Tonga.

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Terminal Behavior and Language Teaching

By Dr. J. Donald Bowen, UCLA

In modern education one often hears of the concept 'terminal behavior.' This is a term supplied from the field of psychology, a term which reflects the belief that the measure of any successful educational activity is the degree to which the student's behavior is modified. To what extent does he do or can he do things he did not or could not before the lessons were presented.

The term fits comfortably in second-language teaching, where we wish to influence the behavior of students by enabling them to communicate effectively in a medium other than their native language. The extent to which they can do this can be measured and evaluated as a reflection of the effectiveness of the teaching (plus whatever aptitude and motivation the student brings to the classroom).

Knowing what terminal behavior we seek should be useful in the design of our teaching. We should select and arrange activities that lead directly to the acquisition of the required behavior. The trouble is we do not know explicitly what sequence of activities does lead to the skill of communicating effectively in a new language.

Dr. Bowen is Professor of English at the University of California, Los Angeles, and a well known author of books and articles on teaching English as a second language.

We observe that all normal human infants in a socially typical environment do learn their mother tongue, but we also know that this experience cannot be recreated for a teenager or an adult. Natural language learning seems to be possible only with the optimum combination of age and circumstance.

The desired terminal behavior in a second language is communication within a relevant range of experience, ideally the same range the student commands in his first language. But obviously for a non-infant this is a highly developed and complex pattern of behavior involving physiological and neurological coordinations that

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NCTE Study Group Examines TESL Training Program

The National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Pre-Convention Study Group in Teaching English as a Second Language met at The Church College of Hawaii and the Polynesian Cultural Center, November 22, 1967, to discuss and evaluate the curriculum of the college's new undergraduate program in TESL.

The Church College of Hawaii in Laie offers what is believed to be one of the first undergraduate degree programs in teaching English as a second language found in the United States. The school's enrollment includes many students from the South Pacific and Asia.

Third Day in Laie

Under the direction of Dr. Gerald Dykstra of the University of Hawaii Department of Speech, chairman of the study group, the three day session for over forty visiting linguists and teachers from the United States and abroad met for the first two days at the University of Hawaii before traveling to Laie for the third day.

Following a bus ride from town which included an informal introduction to Hawaii, Laie, and The Church College of Hawaii by Dr. Wayne Allison, Chairman of the Language Arts Division of The Church College, the group was greeted and welcomed by President Owen J. Cook.

BATESL Program Presented

The BATESL program was presented by William D. Conway and Alice C. Pack of the English Language Institute. Following a short question and answer session, four basic subject areas were selected for discussion in smaller groups. "Methods of Teacher Training and the Use of Tutorials in BATESL program" was discussed in a group led by Dr. William F. Marquardt of the College of Education of the University of Illinois. Dr. Gerald Dykstra led a group discussing "Procedures for Evaluating the Success of a TESL Program."

"The Content of a TESL Methods Course" was discussed in a group led by Dr. Francis C. Johnson, Chairman of the English Department of the University of New Guinea. Richard Port of the Hawaii Curriculum Center led a discussion on the "Content of Three Core Courses in the BATESL Program."

Luncheon-Tours

Following reports of the findings of each discussion group, luncheon was served in the college faculty dining room. After brief side tours of the campus and the grounds of the Laie LDS Temple, the group re-assembled in the councilhouse of the Tongan Village in the Polynesian Cultural Center.

Located near the college, the Polynesian Cultural Center is a vast complex of authentic villages representing the cultures of Samoa, Tonga, Fiji, New Zealand, Hawaii, and Tahiti.

The aims, goals, objectives of a TESL program were discussed by

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TESL Reporter

A quarterly publication of the English Institute and the BATESL program of The Church College of Hawaii.

Editor...William D. Conway, Assistant Professor of English and TESL
Staff....Mrs. Alice Pack, Instructor of English and TESL

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific, and Asia may be submitted to the editor through Box 127, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages. Deadline for the spring edition is March 1, 1968.

Teaching and Testing

By Ted Plaister, University of Hawaii

Language teachers do a lot more testing of their students than they realize. This is especially true of beginning teachers. It is suggested here that what is needed is more teaching and less testing. Further, teachers need to be aware of when they are teaching and when they are testing.

This is not to imply that testing is of itself undesirable. Nor am I referring to regularly scheduled weekly quizzes, mid-term examinations, finals, etc. What is being discussed here is the testing that goes on during the daily lesson.

For example, if a teacher uses a drill exercise such as the following slot substitution practice, is this teaching or testing?

T: Mary had a little lamb. Goat.
Ss: Mary had a little goat. (Expected response.)
T: Sam.
Ss: Sam had a little goat.
T: Big.
Ss: Sam had a big goat.

I submit that this drill, if presented as above, is a test. It tests the students' ability to fit the cue words into the proper positions.

Instead of the above, suppose the teacher uses an approach such as this:

Class listen: Mary had a little lamb.
Mary had a little goat.
Sam had a little goat.
Sam had a big goat.
etc.

Now repeat these sentences after me:

Mary had a little lamb.
Mary had a little goat.
Sam had a little goat.
Sam had a big goat.

This is teaching. Notice that t teacher is presenting a live mo for the students to hear. The stude are being afforded the opportun to hear the utterances many time They are then given a chance to r peat the sentences in imitation of t teacher. (It could be argued that ev this is a form of testing, but f our purposes we won't consider as such.) Finally, the test its is taught. Then the students a tested to see if they can fit the wor in the correct positions. A teachi situation has been built up to testing one.

This teaching/testing dichotom need not be restricted to patter practice type exercises. The sam rationale applies to pronunciatio drills. Asking students during minimal pair exercise to indica which word is being said before the have had adequate time to learn t hear the differences is surely anothe example of testing. Even if lists minimal pairs are put on the chalk board, the teacher indicates with hi hand just which word it is he is saying The students are given the opportun ity of listening many, many time before being asked to discriminat one word form another in a testin situation.

How many times are students asked to listen to a particular line of a dialogue before they are called upon to repeat it? Have they heard it firs so many times that it is ringing in their ears? Or has the teacher been content with a couple of modelings before starting the testing? (And isn't it a test of sorts to ask the students to repeat the line of a dialogue?)

There are too many failures i foreign language learning. Everyon has learned at least one language. I it really so difficult to learn another Perhaps the failures are due, in par to too much testing and not enoug teaching.

Mr. Plaister is Assistant Director of the English Language Institute, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii.

Dr. Gerald Dykstra discusses aims, goals, objectives of TESL in an afternoon session of the NCTE Pre-Convention Study Group on TESL meeting in the Tongan Village of the Polynesian Cultural Center, Laie, Hawaii.

NCTE Group at CCH --

(Continued from page 2)

Dr. Dykstra in the first afternoon session. He suggested that teachers often make far-reaching goals but sometimes fail to realize them for lack of continuing program evaluation.

Checking Immediate Goals

If a program is broken down into months, weeks, days, hours, and even minutes it is possible, suggested Dykstra, for the teacher to check at any time to see if immediate goals are being achieved which will, in turn, lead to a much greater chance for overall success in achieving long term goals.

In an earlier session in Honolulu, Dr. Dykstra and Dr. Johnson pointed out that English is taught through pattern practice, controlled composition, substitution drills and in many other ways. They suggested the possibility and the value that might come from a curriculum that is centered on language learning through actual communication situations.

In-Service Training Probed

The final session of the day was a discussion of the possible content and feasibility of short in-service training projects for teachers. Of particular concern was the proper amount of information that could be presented in such a short time and still influence teacher effectiveness in the classroom.

After a tour of the grounds of the Polynesian Cultural Center, a Polynesian feast, and the evening show, "Magic of the Islands," performed by Church College students, the group returned by bus to Honolulu.

Early Session Talks

Earlier sessions of the Study Group held in Honolulu included talks by Dr. Huber Ellingsworth on "The Meaning of Cross Cultural Communications," and Dr. Rudy Troike on "TESL and Non-Speech." Panel discussions centered on the speech and two additional presentations on "A Model for Curriculum Design" and "TESL Materials Development and the Hawaii Curriculum Center.

Tongan and Samoan 'Fai' Contrasted With English 'Do' and 'Make'

By Alice C. Pack, Church College of Hawaii

In the first issue of the TESL Reporter the problem of literal translation from some language to another was discussed. The different meanings of "yes" and "no" in some English structures were contrasted with the "io" and ""ikai" of Tongan and the""ioe" and "leai" of Samoan. In this issue the differences in the common verbs "do" and "make" in English and their Tongan and Samoan counterpart "fai" will be discussed.

In these Polynesian languages "fai" is usually translated "do" or "make". Both English questions "What are you doing?" and "What are you making?" are translated exactly alike,* using the verb "fai", "Ko e ha ho'o me'a 'oku fai?(Tongan) and "Po'o 'a au me'a o lo'o fai?" (Samoan). There is no distinction in meaning here as there is in the English language.

In teaching English to Samoan and Tongan speakers it will be necessary for the teacher to explain that asking the question 'what is being done' or 'what is taking place' requires two different verbs to cover what is a single construction in the Tongan and Samoan languages. The first one "make", is used when the response will be a noun or a specific object. The other "do" is used when the answer is another verb--with or without a noun object.

Examples:

"What are you making?"
- "A tiki." or "I'm making a tiki."
- "A canoe." or "I'm making a canoe."

"What are you doing?"
- "I'm eating." or "I'm eating my dinner."
- "I'm reading." or "I'm reading a book."
- "I'm making a canoe."

"What are you doing?" could never be answered in English by "A book." "A canoe.", "A tiki.", etc. Note that the "I'm making a canoe" might be the response to either question because the answer is another verb with a noun object. However with the question "What are you making?" the only verb that could be used in the response is "making."

In English "do" can stand for any other verb (including make) and in the construction "What are you doing?" the "do" usually stands for other non-identified verbs. There are, however, a few nouns and verbals which can be the object of the verb "do" itself, such as "homework," "exercises," "the washing," etc. These answers usually denote a fulfillment of responsibility or completion of a task rather than the specific created objects which are necessary with the verb "make."

Examples:

What are you doing?"
- "My homework." or "I'm doing my homework."
- "My exercises." or "I'm doing my exercises."
- "The washing." or "I'm doing the washing."

This distinction should not be too confusing when teaching these English constructions if one remembers that all verbs are repeated or implied in answer to a direct question. "What are you reading?" "A book." or "I'm reading a book." "What are you making?" "A canoe." or "I'm making a canoe." "What are you doing?" "My homework." or "I'm doing my homework." It is only the verb "do" which can be used as a substitute for unknown verbs in the question construction.

It would probably be wise to teach

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Terminal Behavior--

(Continued from page 1)

can be controlled only with extensive practice. It is an activity never yet successfully described in all its specific detail, nor yet imitated by any machine.

Can't Practice by Simply Imitating

We know as teachers that we can't ask beginning students to practice by simply imitating what we desire as their terminal behavior. They are not capable of doing so. Rather we substitute various types of intermediate behavior which we hope will lead to the desired terminal behavior We cannot, in other words, ask them to communicate in a language they have just begun to study, so we employ various repetition exercises, substitution drills, etc., postponing communication for the more advanced levels of training.

This is necessary; we have no choice. But teachers must assume two important responsibilities: (1)to understand how intermediate-type activities can be meaningfully related (in pedagogical terms) to terminal behavior and (2) to move steadily toward communication in the selection and design of activities in the classroom.

Teachers will usually accept this view, especially on an intellectual plane, as a reasonable picture of what they must accomplish. But how is it implemented in the classroom? How do we move from manipulation to communication? How do we get students to a point where they can operate in the realm of the desired terminal behavior?

Manipulative activities are characterized by predictability--the teacher knows all the answers and his corrections are based on this knowledge. But communicative activities presume that the listener does not know all the answers--only the limitations within which the answers must fall. Choices are left to the speaker--otherwise there is no point to the communication, and it would never normally occur.

The application to language teaching, then, seems to be the use of activities (questions, answers, rejoinders, reactions, etc.) which are not predictable. The skill with which a teacher can direct such activities is a measure of his professional competence and, incidentally, the teacher's best guarantee that his job will not soon be taken over by a machine.

Use Communication Activities

Every teacher should ask himself whether he is using all the communication activities his students are capable of participating in. He should be able to analyze each classroom activity (usually each drill or exercise) to know whether it involves communication and to what extent. He should utilize communication-type activities as early as possible and increase the percentage of their use as his students increase their capability.

Terminal Behavior is Touchstone

A consideration of terminal behavior is the touchstone to identify the elements of communication that are available in the classroom. For each activity a teacher should ask two questions: (1) Does the response to this stimulus represent a skill the student will need when he is on his own? and (2) Does this activity stretch the student's capacity by requiring that he express a thought of his own, one that the teacher cannot fully predict? Then, of course, the teacher must know if he is offering

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English Contrasts--

(Continued from page 5)

the use of the English verbs "do" and "make" with their correct responses during the early stages of English learning so that students do not literally translate "fai" as "make" and develop a false facilitation in English language learning as so many students have previously done in both the use of "yes and no" and "do and make."

Language Master Used in Teaching Vocabulary

The evaluation of the Language Master promised in the last issue of the TESL Reporter is progressing. Uses will be suggested in subsequent issues as these machines are used in The Church College of Hawaii English Language Institute (ELI).

One time saving feature for teacher which can be reported at this time is its use for the pronunciation of items which students are studying in English vocabulary builders. The ELI is currently using EDL Word Clues as out-of-class work for advanced classes. Previous to giving an assignment the teacher pronounces the assigned words on small language master cards. Students who are unfamiliar with the pronounciation can practice with these cards as they complete the programmed written assignments, which teach the words in context and by definition, thus making it a completely individualized program.

Reading assignments which have vocabulary footnotes can also be used in this way, and students can have an initial correct pronunciation available for out-of-class study.

Terminal Behavior--

(Continued from page 6)

enough of these activities that require independent student action, enough so that the student can operate effectively when eventually he is left to his own resources.

In short, manipulation activities such as repetion, substitution, and transformation are useful, even necessary, to the beginner. But he must go beyond these if he is ever to achieve a useful control of his second language in situations that demand real and authentic communication. And it is the teacher's responsibility to see that he does.

Harold B. Allen Briefed on BATESL Program

Dr. Harold B. Allen, past presid of Teachers of English to Speak of Other Languages (TESOL), aut and editor of numerous books articles on linguistics and Engl as a second language, visited Church College of Hawaii on Nove ber 29- 1967, to discuss the colle new undergraduate program teaching English as a second langu Accompanying Mr. Allen were M Allen and Shiho S. Nunes of Hawaii Curriculum Center.

To gather data on TESL in Hav and to inquire specifically about BATESL program, Dr. Allen c ferred with Dr. Wayne Allison, Ass ciate Dean and Chairman of the La uage Arts Division; Dr. Nephi Geor Associate Dean; and William D. Co way, Director of the English La guage Institute and TESL.

Allen indicated that future additi to his book TENES-- A Survey of Teaching of English to Non-Speak in the United States may include ditions to his survey of Hawaii.

Fries Honored--

(Continued from page 8)

Demonstrating that eighty years have done little to dampen his intellectual and physical vitality throughout his visit Dr. Fries discussed with genuine interest and knowledge a wide range of subjects--language learning, scuba diving, swimming, development of underprivileged areas of the world, sailing, etc.

Attending the luncheon from the Church College were President Owen J. Cook, Dr. Wayne Allison, Dr. Kay J. Andersen, Alice C. Pack, William D. Conway, and LeRoy King.

Emeritus professsor of English at the University of Michigan since 1958, Dr. Fries has recently published Foundations for English Teachin (with Agnes C. Fries), 1960; Linguistics and Reading, 1963; and Linguistics: The Study of Language, 1964.

Dr. Charles C. Fries Is Honored at Luncheon

(As this issue went to press, it was learned that Dr. Fries passed away on December 8).

Famed University of Michigan linguist, author of numerous books and studies on English Syntax and English teaching, Dr. Charles C. Fries and Mrs. Fries were guests of The Church College of Hawaii on November 27, 1967, at a luncheon in honor of his eightieth birthday.

Dr. Fries has been one of the leaders in the development of modern methods in teaching English to both native and non-native speakers of English. His American English Series has been widely used in second language learning for many years and is forerunner of many texts being published today. The Structure of English, 1952, is a landmark in structural studies of the English language.

Following the luncheon and a tour of campus, the group visited the grounds of the nearby Polynesian Cultural Center. A highlight of their visit was a leisurely outrigger canoe ride around the lagoon while being serenaded by musicians from the Center.

Dr. Charles Fries (left) and CCH President Owen J. Cook take part in an informal discussion following a luncheon in honor of Dr. Fries' eightieth birthday.

Dr. George L. Anderson, Chairman of the English Department of the University of Hawaii, and Dr. Yao Shen, Professor of English at the University of Hawaii and a former student and collegue of Dr. Fries at Michgan, were also honored guests.

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Communication by Each Student In the Language Learning Process

BY GERALD DYKSTRA, UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII

Aspects of the following are taken from the report of the Teaching English as a Second Language Materials Development Center: An investigation of new concepts in language learning.

The language teaching profession is challenged today by a number of important needs. Two of those are taken here for special consideration: (1) providing for a high degree of indivdual participation by each student and (2) simulating in classroom work, much more nearly than heretofore, the functional use of linguistic signaling.

Dr. Gerald Dykstra is presently a professor at the University of Hawaii and principal planner for the Language Arts for Elementary Schools at the Hawaii Curriculum Center.

Choral practice by a whole class of students simultaneously responding to a teacher's cues constitutes one beginning attempt to meet the first of these needs. Language laboratories have also been developed in response to the first of these needs. Other responses have been made as well. Each of these responses succeeds in one fashion or another in getting more people participating simultaneously in exercises. Very few attempts have begun to succeed in meeting the second need. The classes which most nearly simulate the functioning use of linguistic signaling are not language learning classes so much as classes in which the basic language has been learned and in which the language is then used as a medium of communication in continuing with further learning of other related areas such as literature, culture, linguistic analysis, etc. These are important but they go beyond the basic skills in the language. In this presentation the central question is: Can we, from the very early stages of the course, use language more nearly

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as it used outside of the classroom, that is, to communicate meaningfully and, to at least some extent, non-predictably to accomplish purposes the listener may be unaware of until he hears the spoken utterances. It has been shown that it is now clearly possible to accomplish this, and thereby to meet the second need, within the classroom. A U.S. Office of Education project report on the TESL Materials Development Center (Project HE-084), recently completed and available through the U.S. Office of Education's ERIC dissemination services, demonstrates language practice in which each learner is in a responsive environment of other learners. In this program each learner, individually, within the matrix of social situations, is constantly engaged in making language related decisions. The student is alternately required to select the language appropriate to accomplishing a task he has been set, and to select an overt physical response that is appropriate to a non-predictable request that is made of him. The form of the request in these experimental materials, is non-predictable by the hearer within the limit of the contrastive utterances that are being presented in any given unit. As such it may be said they are not as non-predictable as utterances by a native speaker. Recognizing, however, that these utterances are made by begin ning learners to other beginnin learners, it is conceivable that degree of effective non-predictability m be a reasonably close approximati to what it is in many if not mo out-of-classroom situations amon native speakers.

TESL Reporter

A quarterly publication of the English institute and the BATESL program of The Church College of Hawaii.

Editor ... William D. Conway, Assistant Professor of English and TESL

Staff ... Mrs. Alice Pack, Instructor of English and TESL

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific, and Asia may be submitted to the editor through Box 127, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii, 96762

Manuscripts should be double spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages and typed, not exceeding three pages. Deadline for the Summer edition is May 1, 1968.

Overt Response Requir

The principal innovation of th experimental material is that th feature communication of this m realistic nature and that the succe or failure of each communicati attempt itself serves as the prim reinforcement for correct respons or punishment for incorrect on After initial presentation and pra tice, a pupil hearer must respo actively (overtly) and appropriate to a pupil speaker whose messa he cannot predict. Preparin materials which are to be used i accomplishing this requires caref attention to the details of sequenci and provision for abundant indivi ual practice through multiple-un classroom organization in which t teacher does not have to be prese with each group at all times. do anything less means that the pup would not have sufficient opportun to individually make selections responses or to select the langua stimuli which, put into use, wi permit them to accomplish a variet of nonlinguistic or supra-linguisti goals.

In the 150 illustrative units, Com munication Activities are always pr ceded by Presentations. In the Pr sentations, pupils learn new langua content and get intensive pattern practice in saying the words a sentences they will use in the Com munication Activities. At the sa tiem, while learning the meaning they will usually make the objec used for the Communication Activi The Communication Activity is t crucial part of each unit. The pr sentation functions as an introducti or preparation.

The Presentation and Commu

(Please turn to page 8)

Tonga II: A Peace Corps Program

BY ERIC SHUMWAY, THE CHURCH COLLEGE OF HAWAII

Peace Corps Language Training is always an exciting, frantic, wonderfully productive affair. The Tonga II language program conducted last fall under the direction of the University of Hawaii on the lush east end of Molokai was typically successful.

At seven o'clock in the morning of October 22 five Peace Corps volunteers sat yawning and fidgeting in each the twenty-four language huts in camp Pukoo. This was their first morning after their arrival at the site. Suddenly, there burst in upon them a handsome, vivacious native Tongan who greeted them warmly with a malo e lelei! (Thanks for being well!), gesturing to them to listen carefully and repeat after him. Startled but determined the volunteers began their first core drill session of observation, imitation, and repetition. Within the hour they could produce in Tongan with almost flawless pronunciation: Hello! How are you?, Fine, thank you!, What is your name?, My name is ____, Thanks for coming!, Good-bye!, Good-bye!. And the only English heard at all during the entire class was spoken by the native instructor as it was being drilled.

A theory for language acquisition had already been outlined for volunteers in a short bulletin prepared by Dale P. Crowley, senior linguist for the University of Hawaii Peace Corps.

> The acquisition and use of language is not a problem solving activity. (Language may be used to solve problems, but the stream of speech itself very rarely displays problem solving.) The acquisition and use of language is not the study and memorization of generalizations of language phenomena (grammar rules), nor is it a deductive kind of reasoning based on a knowledge of generalizations of language phenomena. Most high school and college courses in foreign language are based on these premises. Language is a system of structured behavior, the acquisition of which depends upon observation, perception (of both forms and meanings), imitation, and repeated practice. . . . Except for the higher level of abstraction and meaning characteristic of language, we classify it as a complex skill performance along with athletic, instrumental music, and other manual skills. A complex skill performance is one which requires the coordination of the muscular and neurological systems.

Mr. Eric B. Shumway is an Instructor of English at The Church College of Hawaii and was Language Coordinator for TonganII in the University of Hawaii's Peace Corps language program.

Sinaukofe Pula models the Samoan language as Peace Corps Trainees strain to hear the exact pronunciation. Their classroom is a simply constructed booth with space for eight students and an instructor.

The pedagogical procedures followed in Tonga II grew out of the above view of language and language learning. This means that the approach

was principally audio-lingual, that no English was spoken during the drill sessions, that all grammatical features and vocabulary were heard, understood, and pronounced dozens of times before they were ever seen on the printed page. It also means that classes were small (no more than six volunteers per instructor), that well-trained native speakers of Tongan were the models and immediate correctors of speech patterns, and that native Tongan pronunciation and accent were the goal of every Peace Corp volunteer. The theory was confirmed by the progress of the volunteers. Many volunteers had already studied several languages in universities and were dubious about this "new" theory and approach. But their doubts soon disappeared in the remarkable fluency and understanding they acquired in a few short weeks.

Specialization Offered

Since Peace Corps training in Tonga II involved intensive study and "specializing" in many different areas (culture and history of Tonga, island science, agriculture, health and hygiene, science instruction in Tongan public schools, and TESL methods), only five hours were devoted to language study a day. Four of these hours were spent in core drill sessions as described above. In the evening, however, all volunteers sat in groups of fifteen and simply listened to two or more Tongan instructors converse in their own language. In these conversations the Tongans would talk naturally and freely and at normal speed about anything pertinent to Tonga, using grammatical patterns already familiar to the volunteers. Thus the volunteers became more acquainted with the reality of the Tongan language, the intonation and accent of native speakers, their facial expressions and body gestures. This evening conversation hour was a refreshment from the drill session as well as valuable reinforcement to it.

Although the volunteers "absorbed" most of the grammar of the Tongan language through imitation and practice, a weekly one hour grammar session was held in English with the author of the language text. Here the volunteers were finally allowed to ask questions in English about the Tongan language. It was somewhat surprising and gratifying to see how few questions there really were and how few volunteers were having serious difficulty mastering Tongan grammar. These sessions usually ended up in a discussion of the author's experiences in Tonga.

Volunteer competence in reading and writing was an important secondary goal of Tonga II. Since Tongan is a phonemic language the volunteers were assured that each meaningful sound in the language was represented by only one spelling symbol. This one to one correspondence proved very convenient, for they could spell a word as soon as they could pronounce it. Also each lesson from the text included a page or two of reading and comprehension exercises.

Weekly oral and written examinations were conducted by the instructors. These examinations were more measures than motivators since the volunteers were already highly motivated. Daily evaluations were also made of each volunteer and his mastery of the material covered each day.

Progress was rapid in Tonga II. The volunteers could usually "internalize" a lesson in 10 hours of intensive drill and conversation. Most lessons introduced four or five major grammatical features. In five weeks all anouncements and bulletins from the language office were written in the target language, and volunteers were conversing in Tongan at the dining tables.

A fitting conclusion to the ten weeks of learning on Molokai was the two week in-country language training conducted at 'Atele school in Tonga. Here the number of drill sessions were reduced and the amount of conversation practice increased. We were fortunate indeed to find dozens of willing Tongan citizens, women, and many children who came every day to spend hours in conversation with the volunteers. Kava circles in the huts of villagers

Transformational, Structural, and Traditional Grammars as Classifications

BY YAO SHEN, UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII

Traditional, structural, and transformational are three high frequency words among students of English grammar. Many details in these grammars, nevertheless, overlap.

A brief look at some of the linguistic currents prior to the interest in English grammar tells us that the British Isles had been touched by various waves of different language speakers from continental Europe. The Norman Conquest brought a powerful French influence cultural and linguistic, and heralded a long period of relative peace during which time the middle class became prosperous, gained social prestige, and were conscious of their own language. Chaucer wrote in his native English. English, like any other language, went through various changes. Caxton's printing press helped people become aware of different pronunciations and different spellings of same words, and the lack of a systematic correlation between the two. A casual investigation into the linguistic interest of 16th and 17th century England can easily yield a large body of materials on the phonological aspects of the language.

While the vernacular or English steadily increased in prestige, Latin and Greek continued to be status symbols through the Middle ages. The study of the grammars of Latin and Greek led scholars to the writing of English grammar books. The 18th century is known for its English grammars, especially those of Bishop Robert Lowth (1762) and Lindley Murry (1795). Such books pegged English grammar with the rules of Latin and Greek. Writers of grammars of this nature are often referred to as traditionalists who prescribe grammar. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, continental Europeans such as Hendrik Poutsma, Etsko Kruisinga, and Otto Jespersen as well as Henry Sweet of England attempted to describe English on the basis of empirical data from English. These Scholars could be referred to as descriptive traditionalists. Grammarians like Jespersen and Sweet were actually diverging from the traditional ways of establishing grammatical categories and paving the way of the structuralists.

Professor Shen of the Department of English, University of Hawaii, is the author of over 70 books, bibliographies, and articles dealing with teaching English as a second language, Linguistics, and grammar.

In the New World, Edward Sapir and Leonard Bloomfield did similar descriptive work in American Indian languages. Among structural grammarians of English, George L. Trager, Henry Lee Smith, Jr. and Archibald A. Hill could be recognized as the much more pure structuralist particularly in their commitment to starting from the phoneme and working up from there through the hierarchical classified grammatical

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were nightly events. Here friendly conversation mixed beautifully with the national beverage of the Friendly Islands.

The Tongan people were overwhelmed by the marked proficiency of these Americans who were speaking better and sounding more like Tongans in twelve weeks than the vast majority of palangi foreigners who had lived years in Tonga. I met many of my old friends all of whom could not help but exclaim energetically about the me'a fakaofo e poto vave 'a e Kau Ngaue 'Ofa (miracle of language learning among the Workers of Love).

units. Charles C. Fries in his Structure of English (1952) uses function as the basis for grammatical definition and departs from traditional grammar, not because traditional grammar uses meaning, but because "the basis of their definition slides from meaning to function." The book is an outstanding example of how "structural grammar states" the grammar of a language, and it contains samples of how utterances which are not the same can have the same syntactic pattern; i.e. the words may be different from one utterance to another, but their functions and arrangements are the same. Much of this kind of work, including that of Fries, owes a great deal to the influence of predecessors. The main interest is in describing the features and relations found in empirical data and not in judging usage. However, Fries's way of describing English grammar by beginning with the entire utterance not only differed from that of many other structuralists but also actually anticipated the approach of the transformational-generative grammarians. Structural grammar is also sometimes called descriptive grammar.

Transformational Grammar

The latest mode is transformational grammar, an approach headed by Noam Chomsky. Transformationalists aim at finding out through "manipulating" specific sentences in language, i.e. surface structures, whether these sentences are derived from the same or different deep structures which are abstractions. Their interest is in the theory of language. Though they claim closer kinship to descriptive traditional grammar, evidence indicates that they also use data gathered and symbols established by structuralists. The study is very young. The Grammarians are hopefully reaching for "God's truth". For the moment, they are grasping with uncertain ease.

Perhaps it would be intellectually healthy to remember that human knowledge is less akin to Pallas Athena, born full-grown, a myth, and more to the nature of growth or the accumulating of human experience. Traditional, structural, and transformational grammars are no exceptions. Each has its own distinctive features. Each is indebted to previous research in a cumulative way. These three words -- traditional, structural, and transformational -- are labels of classification, markers for convenience. It would be unwise to depart from facts by assuming trichotomy.

A New Publication

Language Teaching Abstracts, a new journal, edited jointly by the English-Teaching Information Centre and the Centre for Information and Language Teaching, "aims to keep teachers and others professionally concerned abreast with the latest research and developments in the teaching of modern languages." It presents objective summaries of articles from journals appearing in many different countries. Single copies: $1.00 from Cambridge University Press, Amer. Branch, 32 East 57th St., N.Y. 10022.

A two week Workshop in Teaching English as a Second Language will be offered by the Church College of Hawaii in the annual Aloha Summer Session which begins June 17. (Meets 8-12 a.m. through June 28). Offering three hours graduate credit, Education 597 is designed to acquaint the classroom teacher with the basic principles and practices of English as a Second Language. Teachers from Hawaii will find many points especially useful in handling students with multi-lingual and/or pidgin backgrounds.

An introduction to descriptive linguistics, Linguistics 300, will also be offered. This course will meet on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday from 12:45-2:45 for six weeks. It is possible to register for either course by mail.

For the Newcomer to TESL

Why Pattern Practice?

BY WILLIAM D. CONWAY, THE CHURCH COLLEGE OF HAWAII

A newcomer to the discipline of teaching English as a second language is often temporarily overwhelmed by the terminology and associated methodology. "Pattern practice," a cornerstone of the audio-lingual method, is a common term encountered in any first reading of text books dealing with English as a second language.

To understand what pattern practice is and why it is emphasized in second-language teaching, it is necessary to examine several basic premises of the audio-lingual method. Perhaps even the term "audio-lingual" is new to many people. One of the most basic concepts involved in this approach and in pattern practice is the idea that listening and speaking should be taught first, then reading and writing. Oral language should be taught first because it is the primary basis of communication. The name "audio-lingual" is derived from this emphasis on oral language. The primacy of spoken language may be demonstrated by the fact that everyone can speak a language but not all people can write one. Certainly all learn to speak before we learn to write. Closely related to the "oral first" injunction is another basic premise which states that language learning is not concerned with problem solving (grammatical analysis and memorizing of language rules as in traditional language teaching) but with the formation of habits.

The special emphasis of the audio-lingual approach and some aspects of the dichotomy that exists between it and traditional language teaching have been stated rather succinctly by Robert Lado in Language Teaching (1964). "Knowing words, individual sentences, and/or rules of grammar does not constitute knowing the language. Talking about language is not knowing it. The linguist, the grammarian, the critic talk about the language; the student must learn to use it. To know the language is to use its patterns of construction with appropriate vocabulary at normal speed for communication. Understanding or verbalizing a pattern may help the student to learn but will never take the place of practicing the patterns through analogy, variation, and the transformation to establish them as habits." (p.51)

Pattern Practice Defined

Pattern practice is one of the key approaches to the development of language habits in the language learner. "Pattern practice," according to Mary Finocchiaro in English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice (1964), is the use of "drills and activities in which the patterns of a language are learned to the point where students can repeat, alter, or respond to them habitually and fluently." (p. 134) Nelson Brooks in Language and Language Learning (1964) says of pattern practice, "It is . . . exercise in structural dexterity undertaken solely for the sake of practice, in order that performance may become habitual and automatic--as it must be when the mind concentrates on the message rather than on the phenomena that convey it." (p. 146) Examination of other common methodology books in the subject area will reveal considerable agreement with the three statements quoted.

Key points related to the definition of pattern practice might be listed as follows:

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Communication-Controlled But Not Predictable

(Continued From Page 2)

cation Activity booklet demonstrates how each Activity works. Immediately after each Presentation there must be a demonstration of the Communication Activity with one group of pupils (detailed instructions are given for dividing the class) while the other groups observe. Only then do the other groups begin the Communication Activity. When the groups are active, it is the teacher's job to supervise them and see that each group is working smoothly but as much as possible without help from the teacher. The Activities must work--if only briefly-- without the immediate participation of the teacher.

That part of the conceptual framework which deals with communication aspects of the materials is the following:

Primary Concept

Primary Concept: (other primary concepts of the project are not presented here) Controlled but non-predictable, functional use of communication.

Corollary Concept #1.1: Communication implies control over a range of signals. Since these are to be learned and used cumulatively but substantially without error, proper sequencing or programing of content is an inherent requirement. Programming is to be such that it will help avoid errors in matters that are not part of the teaching point itself.

Corollary Concept #1.2: Communication requires an ability which implies preliminary learning. This is to be accomplished in presentations which make use of choral and individual drill and pattern practice in situations which illustrate and clarify meanings.

Corollary Concept #1.3: Not much communication practice (as defined below) can take place in a large class unless more than one communicative process is going on at once. Small group work in the framework of a multiple unit class design is almost inherent in the communication requirement.

Corollary Concept #1.4: Communication will approximate social use of language more closely if it develops out of a supra-linguistic purpose rather than only out of a test situation designed to see if a pupil can do what he is supposed to be able to do. Futhermore it is the contention here that part of the test must include setting the pupil in a situation in which he determines, selects, and uses the language elements which will be of benefit to him in accomplishing his supra-linguistic goals. Accordingly, a superordinate purpose will be incorporated as an integral part of each Communication Activity.

Corollary Concept #1.5: Checking on comprehension can be accomplished more readily when the appropriate responses to linguistic cues are overt physical responses.

Corollary Concept #1.6: To effect communication the pupil will select both linguistic responses and overt physical responses to linguistic stimuli out of a repertoire of such responses available to him.

Corollary Concept #1.7: The superordinate purpose implies that out of a range of possible linguistic and overt physical responses only one of several, or a limited number of many, will be the correct response.

Cue is Unpredictable

Corollary Concept #1.8: The linguistic cue will be unpredicatable to the pupil listener whose overt physical response must nevertheless be appropriate.

Corollary Concept #1.9: The small group must constitute a responsive environment for both speaker and responder in the communcating situation. Toward obtaining such an environment each communication activity is required to call for overt responses.

Corollary Concept #1.10: Since there will be many "Communications" operating simultaneously, and since the teacher will not be able to monitor each communication, the success or failure of the communication itself must provide for the reinforcement of correct responses and the extinction of incorrect ones. A system of automatic breakdown or cessation of activity in case of error is to be built in.

Phatic Communication

Corollary Concept #1.11: Since the operational definition for communication is such that much of language does not lend itself to contrastive use in communication activities, there must be other provision for inclusion of practice in the language used for ritual and celebration (e.g., greeting, polite expressions, stories, and song). This includes language content that Malinowski refers to as "phatic communion," as well as those elements of language that are redundant or that do not occur as linguistic signalers exclusively but require accompanying gestural or situational signals.

Corollary Concept #1.12: Inclusion of language elements which do not lend themselves to functioning use in communication activities implies exclusive reliance on other modes of language instruction for their teaching. These will include songs, physical education activities, preplaylets, playlets and improvisations, as well as the repetition and pattern practice drills of the presentations referred to above and reading and writing materials.

Corollary Concept #1.13: Each mode of teaching can be so presented that it helps to "teach itself." Materials can aim toward a format that permits use without the requirement of prior special teacher training programs.

Corollary Concept #1.14: Good materials may well be teacher educating and thus constitute a type of in-service teacher education.

Corollary Concept #1.15: The ideas of materials that stimulate and educate teachers, and of teaching language in a variety of modes give rise to the concept of art in teaching and the posibility of promoting it by giving teachers graduated experience in selection among alternate possibilities.

In this conceptual framework, communication means that the individual speaker is to have multiple choices of linguistic content; that he is to participate; and that only by the use participate in a situation in which he has a purpose superordinate to that of language practice; and that only by the use of recently presented or newly learned language forms will he be able to accomplish his superordinate purpose. His hearers are not able to predict his linguistic choices, but are nontheless required to respond overtly to his linguistic signals by selecting one of a range of potential responses. When the speaker repeatedly and consistently accomplishes his purpose without the necessity of repetition or extraneous signals like translation, communication is to be assumed.

Materials Not on Market

Communication has a restricted meaning here such that no published foreign language materials include it in their design. Only in rare instances can one find something resembling it, and in those instances it is usually sporadic and peripheral to the materials in which it is found.

The major hypothesis for the project was that the concept of communication could be manifest in English as a Second Language materials for children. A corollary hypothesis was that such materials would be operable in the classroom.

The appraisals were, first, of interral consistency - the realization of the concepts in the classroom to the extent indicated by feedback from the try-out centers. The first ap-

Pattern Practice Develops Habits--

(Continued From Page 7)

Pattern Practice

1) is entirely oral.
2) is a closely controlled substitution of elements within sentences.
3) is designed to develop habits on an unconscious level--to be automatic.
4) is often designed to draw the student's active attention away from the structural point being mastered.

Pattern practice has taken many forms as teachers have sought to add variety, interest, and flexibility to the activity. Some common forms are repetition, replacement, completion, transposition, expansion, and transformation, just to mention a few. To further clarify the definitions of pattern practice previously given, let us study the following simple example of a substitution exercise.

(Note that the basic sentence pattern remains the same, but the word in the slot changes. The student is really practicing a "do" question structure while his attention is focused on the slot.)

Teacher: Do
Do you see the truck?

Train
Do you see the train?

Ship
Do you see the ship?

(Cue by teacher, response by the class)

Teacher: Bell
Did he hear the bell?

Ship
Did he hear the ship?

Car
Did he hear the car?

Dog
Did he hear the dog?

Many words might be expended on this and other types of pattern practice, and how to use them effectively; this is not, however, the purpose of this paper.

Once one has accepted habit formation through pattern practice rather than language analysis as a proper activity for a beginning-English classroom, the possibilities of the method can be suggested rather easily. A class may produce 20-25 sentences per minute following cues supplied by the teacher. This represents 1000-1250 recitations in a 50 minute period. In a grammar-translation class, by comparison, a student on an individual basis might recite one time in a minute, producing 50 recitations in a 50 minute period.

Traditional grammar rules, if linguistically sound, are still given to the student learning English as a sec-

Communication--

praisal constituted a major part of a doctoral dissertion. The second appraisal began in the summer of 1964 and includes observation and analysis by project personnel, supervisors and teachers in ten try-out centers in various parts of the world: New York City, the Choctaw reservation in Mississippi, the Navaho reservation in New Mexico, Puerto Rico, Saipan, Peru, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Japan and New Guinea. Internal appraisals and feedback reports separately served as the stimulus for repeated revision of all materials.

We feel that the results of research on this project presage the day when the language teaching profession will consider the controlled introduction of communication as part of the language learning process. Sets of materials - for adult level, secondary school level, and primary school level - are now being built on the basis of the TESL center research. Other materials development efforts elsewhere are proceeding along very similar lines.

"Bi-lingualism" Is Major Theme of 1968 TESOL Convention Held in Texas

The second annual convention of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) met March 6-9, 1968, in the Gunter Hotel and the new Hemisphere Convention Center in San Antonio, Texas. Nearly 1,000 teachers and linguists from across the United States and from abroad attended the convention and the two-day pre-convention study groups.

"Bi-lingualism," one of the main themes of the conference, was introduced in the opening address of United States Senator from Texas, Ralph W. Yarborough. Subsequence individual group sections on levels from pre-school to adult education dealt with the problems of teaching English to Spanish speakers, the major bi-lingual problem facing the schools of San Antonio and much of Texas and the South-West.

Hawaii Participants

In the Friday afternoon session ten major papers were given to the assembled convention group. Among those delivering the papers was Nancy Arapoff of the University of Hawaii who spoke on "The Semantic Role of Sentence Connectors in Extra-Sentence Logical Relationships."

The final day of the convention was devoted to sixteen group meetings dealing with special aspects of the field of TESOL. In the Teaching Literature section, Donald M. Topping of the University of Hawaii presented a paper entitled "The Linguistic Function of Literature." Also representing the University was Ted Plaister who delivered a paper entitled "Reading and Aural Comprehension Instruction for College Level Foreign Students." Richard C. Sittler, Director of the English Language Institute at the University was chairman of the section considering the problems of Implementing and Administrating TESOL Programs. Dr. Gerald Dykstra of the University and the Hawaii Curriculum Center substituted for Paul W. Bell, First Vice-President of TESOL, in several activities.

The Church College of Hawaii was represented in the Teacher Training section by William D. Conway, Director of the English Language Institute and BATESL program, who delivered a paper entitled "The Undergraduate Major in Teaching English as a Second Language".

Pre-Convention Study

The pre-convention study groups concentrated on the theme of "teaching reading in ESOL classes." Section meetings were held on elementary, secondary and adult levels with others for school administrators and "academic" adults. An outstanding feature of the pre-convention activities was the availability of field trips into eight of the elementary schools of San Antonio which are using an experimental bi-lingual curriculum and additional trips to the very impressive Defense Language Institute English Language School at Lackland AFB.

The 3rd Annual Convention of the Teachers of English to Speakers of other languages will meet March 5-8, 1969, at the Pick-Congress Hotel, Chicago, Illinois.

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ond language. However in the initial stages when aural-oral skills are emphasized, rules are mentioned, generally, only after a student has had sustained practice in using the structure the rule refers to; even then, rules receive relatively little of the time devoted to language teaching.

If oral language is primary and necessarily must be learned before reading and writing, then some economical method of developing the necessary habits must be used. In the audio-lingual approach, this is "pattern practice."

Formation of Asia-Pacific Island TESOL Association Suggested

Francis C. Johnson, Professor of English Language at the University of Papua and New Guinea, wrote the letter below. His address is Box 1141, P.O., Boroko, T.P.N.G., New Guinea.

Dear Colleague,

I am writing to you to obtain your reactions to the possibility of establishing some type of association of teachers of English as a second language in the Asia-Pacific area. Similar associations already exist in the United Kingdom and the United States of America, and in our area we have committees and institutions concerned with co-operative teacher training and materials preparation across national boundaries. However, I believe that the formation of an association to act as a clearing house for the spread of information, experience, programmes and materials in our field would be of undoubted value to those of us who are working in the field of English as a second language.

One of the most persistent problems in our field is simply ignorance of what other people are doing, of the successes and failures that they have and of the experimentation they undertake in the several areas of language language learning and language teaching that we are concerned with.

At present I have no clear idea of what form such a professional association should take or how it might be financed, but if there are sufficient of our colleagues in the Asia-Pacific region who believe that the formation of such an association would be worthwhile, I am confident that we would be able to find support from Governments and from foundations and institutions who are concerned with problems of communication and education in our region.

I would appreciate it if you could give me your reactions to this proposal, indication whether or not you think it worthwhile to persist with the idea and giving me the names of any institutions, organizations or English language teaching specialists in your country or area who might be contacted for their reactions to such a proposal.

Yours sincerely,
(Francis C. Johnson)

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A Structural Comparison Of Tongan and Samoan

BY ERMEL J. MORTON

This paper presents a few of the most prominent differences between structure of Tongan that cause problems in the teaching of English to Tongans.

Many of the problems encountered by the Tongan in studying English arise from his attempts to transfer the patterns of Tongan structure over to the English, both in speaking and in writing. The result is that whereever the structure of his native language differs from that of English, he has difficulty and makes mistakes.

Since this paper is not designed to present a highly technical discussion of the subject, a minimum of the technical jargon of descriptive linguistics will be used. However, all of the material of the paper has been derived by the research methods of descriptive linguistics. To the linguist desiring a more detailed and technical description of the matters in this paper, the author's doctoral dissertation "A Descriptive Grammar of Tongan" will prove helpful.

At the outset it should be pointed out that the most basic structural difference between English and Tongan is that of the devices used to signal grammatical meaning. Some languages, including the so-called highly synthetic or inflected languages, depend upon modification of the word to indicate grammatical concepts. For example, Spanish hablo "I speak" hablé "I spoke" shows a change of grammatical meaning effected by use of a suffix. In English are found such inflections as see > saw > seen and as walk > walked > walking, etc. In all of these instances, the change in grammatical meaning is signalled by inflection of the word.

Another grammatical device used in many languages is that of allowing context to indicate the precise grammatical meaning with no change in the form of the word. The number of most nouns in Japanese, for example,

Dr. Ermel J. Morton is the Director of the Linguistics Institute at Ricks College in Rexburg, Idaho.

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is indicated by context; hako to inkitsubo (hako, "box", and to "and" and inkitsubo "inkstand") may mean either "the box and the inkstand" or "the boxes and the inkstand" depending upon the context. The Japanese language, except in a few instances, makes no overt distinction between singular and plural nouns, leaving the meaning to be inferred from context or the situation in which the nouns are used. With regard to English and Tongan, English makes use of context to a greater extent than Tongan, a structural difference that presents a number of problems to the Tongan learning English. Fortunately, however, the number of English nouns having the same form in singular as in plural is not too great and the extent of the problem is limited.

Function Words Used

Separate words, which may be designated as function words, convey grammatical concepts in a number of languages. Tongan belongs to this group of languages; in fact, the main grammatical device in Tongan is that of using function words to signal grammatical meaning.

The Tongan subject marker specifying subjects of transitive verbs is an instance of such a function word. If Sione "John" is to be used as a subject, it must be preceded by the function word 'e as in the sentence: Na'e ui ia 'e Sione "John called him" (Na'e past tense marker, ui "to call," ia "him," 'e subject marker, and Sione "John"). In Japanese, the function word wa also marks subjects as in Watashi wa hon wo mótte imasu "I have the book" (watashi "I", wa subject marker, hon "book," wo direct object or goal marker motte "have," and imasu present tense). As indicated, wa marks the subject and wo the direct object in this sentence. The 'e of Tongan and wa and wo of Japanese are separate words conveying grammatical meaning. The use of separate words is the third major type of grammatical device.

Word order, another type of contextual device, is also used to convey grammatical meaning in a number of languages including English. The well-known example of The dog bit the man as contrasted with The man bit the dog illustrates the use of word order in signalling the subject and object in the sentance. The change of subjects from dog to man and the change of goals or direct objects from man to dog is effected by a change of word order: the subject precedes the verb and the object follows it. Many languages use the device of word order to indicate the relationship of modifier to the word modified. English makes much more use of word order as a grammatical device than does Tongan.

Three Signalling Devices

Thus, to summarize, there are three major grammatical devices used in signalling grammatical meaning: inflection or changes made in the word, use of separate words or function words and use of context to signal meaning. However, since this paper is in no way an attempt to explain the types of grammatical devices used in languages generally, but is rather an attempt to point out the differences in the use of such grammatical devices by English and Tongan, the examples so far given will suffice to lay the groundwork for the discussion which follows.

(Continued on Page 6)

TESL Reporter

A quarterly publication of the English Language Institute and the BA-TESL program of The Church College of Hawaii.

Editor.....William D. Conway, Assistant Professor of English and TESL..

Staff.....Mrs. Alice Pack, Assistant Professor of English and TESL.

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific, and Asia may be submitted to the editor through Box 127, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages.

Deadline for the Fall edition is August 25, 1968.

Controlled Guided and Free Writing

BY RICHARD J. PORT

The teaching of writing skills in second language learning is unlikely to improve until greater effort has been made to sequence those skills. At present, the attempt is made to filter out errors through extensive free practice. Some students learn in this way, but the second language teacher needs only to look at his students' papers to see for himself how unsuccessful this method usually is for a majority of his students.

With extensive free practice, students' errors accumulate until these become so numerous and varied that students can not determine which ones require their most immediate attention; reinforcement of correct writing procedures does not take place; students become discouraged because they are unable to see any real improvements in their writing ability and the teacher becomes a machine turning out an infinite variety of red marks on students' themes.

Ideal Program

Is there an alternative? We need first ask ourselves what an effective writing program should provide for the students. Ideally such a program should:

1) Make it possible for students to write error-free papers.
2) Reinforce correct writing procedures.
3) Build students' confidence in their own ability to write.
4) Motivate students to improve their writing ability.
5) Increase the amount of students' practice.
6) Enable students to proceed at their own rate.
7) Develop students' ability to use skillfully the complex English structures so evident in the writing of educated adults.

Writing techniques which control students' practice, as well as guide and channel progress, show considerable promise in meeting the criteria just mentioned. By programming and isolating various structures of study and by combining these in such a way as to enable students to use the complex structures found in the writing of educated adults, we can provide a tool for writing practice which is so controlled that students are ensured success at every attempt.

Substitution Is First Step

A student can begin by making simple substitutions on existing models. He can work his way through a series of graduated steps involving modifications and transformations unitl finally he begins to expand upon the model and create original models of his own. As difficulties arise, the student can be branched for further practice. Only in the last stages of this technique, only after the student has proven he can do so successfully, is he required to work with the steps which ask him to write freely and creatively. One of the most encouraging aspects of this technique is that it can provide students with practice which will allow them to proceed according to their own abilities and at their own rate of speed.

Early in 1964, an experimental set of materials was developed using this technique. These materials were used with a number of groups of foreign students at Teachers College, Columbia University, with second language students in Nigeria, Japan, and elsewhere around the world as well as with younger first-

Richard J. Port is Curriculum Planner at the Hawaiian Curriculum Center.

Church College of Western Samoa Plans Revised TESL Curriculum

A major curriculum revision to meet the English language needs of both native and non-native speakers English attending the Church College of Western Samoa (sponsored by the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints) has been started according to Ronald F. Malan, Language Arts Department Chairman.

Mr. Malan pointed out that the curriculum has, in past years, been greatly influenced by a number of factors: 1) the inexperience of the faculty in teaching English as a second language, 2)the frequent changes of personnel, particularly Mainland teachers, have often caused fluctuations in curriculum philosophy, 3) a basic conflict of need in attempting to provide classes for both native and non-native speakers of English, 4) the need for students to pass examinations required as a feature of the New Zealand syllabus after which Western Samoa patterns its school system.

A committee was formed to study the problems and write a new curriculum. Members of the committee were first charged to become better acquainted with current methods of TESL which was accomplished via extensive reading, a visit to the educational TV facilities in American Samoa, and by Mr. Malan's trip to the 1967 NCTE Convention in Honolulu.

Curriculum Designed

As a result of their efforts, the committee proposed a one year temporary curriculum for the beginning of the present school year which, according to the New Zealand schedule, started immediately after Christmas Vacation. Mr. Malan reports, "With considerable effort we were able to present a temporary, one year curriculum scheme, for all grade levels which was definitely more ESL-oriented, though far from the efficiency we seek; it was coupled with a skeletal outline of regular and systematic in-service training sessions to support and supplement it.

Programs Implemented

The problem of a curriculum that is efficient for both Samoan and "palagi" students is beginning to be solved through the use of programmed and individualized, continuous progress materials for the palagi. For the Samoans, we are currently establishing a hierarchy of individual concepts to be taught. Once identified, the concepts will be stated as instructional objectives. This painstaking process will take a long time. But when it is finally accomplished, we intend to work toward developing programmed and invidualized, continuous progress materials for the Samoan students."

Composition —

language students in Massachusetts. In every tryout the results indicated that students were consistently able to write both simple and complex structures of the language correctly and gain confidence in their writing ability.

It is encouraging to discover that we may, at last, have a tool that will provide extensive writing practice and will develop writing skills systematically and without discouraging the student or overburdening the teacher with successive corrections. Other approaches have not met with very great success. At the very least, this technique deserves our attention and consideration.

1 Ananse Tales, A Course in Controlled Composition. Gerald Dykstra, Richard Port and Antonette Port, Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1966.

Teaching the "th" of English

BY ALICE C. PACK

Lesson Two is aimed at teaching the recognition and production of [θ] and [ð] (see International Phonetic Alphabet) which are used extensively in English (both are usually spelled "th" in English). Because these sounds are new to many non-native speakers of English, including Tongan and Samoan speakers, they might be confused with sounds which are produced in a slightly different position or manner.

As was mentioned in lesson one, it is well to present new sounds in contrast — from the known to the unkown. When neither [θ] or [ð] is known previously, one or the other should be taught first in contrast with a known sound. Then, after the student can both recognize and produce one of these sounds in a speech segment, he is ready to learn the second sound in contrast with the one he has just mastered.

No Voiced Velars

Since neither Tongan nor Samoan have the voiced velar sounds [z] nor [d] but do have the unvoiced ~~velars~~ [s] and [t] it would be best to start by teaching the unvoiced [θ] in relation to one of these sounds. If [s] is chosen for contrast, the teacher might start the lesson by pronouncing two words which have as their only difference the two sounds [s] and [θ] such as "thumb" and "sum" or "some". (Note that spelling and pronunciation in English are not necessarily related and students should not confuse pronunciation with spelling.) As they are pronounced the teacher might put a simple addition problem (1+1=2) on the board to represent sum and hold up her thumb to emphasize the contrast in meaning between these two words.

Several pairs of words might then be introduced to show the same contrast. These may be placed on the board or simply a sign for each sound might be put on the board. The class indicates sound 1 "θ" or sound 2 "s" as the teacher says the words. Included might be minimal pairs like:

stick	thick	miss	myth
sum	thumb	pass	path
mass	math	moss	moth

At this time the teacher should avoid any detailed definition of the words used. It is sufficient to let the students know that there is a difference in meaning and one cannot be substituted for the other. A description of the difference in these sounds should be given, demonstrating that the tongue moves forward from the "s" position—where it is against the ridge behind the upper teeth—until it is between the teeth. This is what makes the contrast between these sounds. Sketching this on the blackboard or showing a previously prepared diagram might prove helpful.

Recognition exercises similar to those given in Lesson 1 should be tried so that the teacher may see whether the students can distinguish the difference in sound.

Exercise 1) A minimal pair is used with the teacher repeating the same word twice or pronouncing two different words. As this is done the students say "same" or "different," indicating their ability to dis-

tinguish the sounds. Examples: earth, earth = same lass, lath = different.

Exercise 2) Instead of two words the teacher repeats three words, with two alike and one in contrast. The position of the contrasting word is indicated by the students who say 1, 2, or 3. Example: sum, thumb, some 2; math, math, mass 3.

The teacher should move around the room so that she can listen to different student responses and so that the students do not depend on seeing this difference in tongue position as the teacher produces the sound. If the students recognize the difference in sounds, production training may begin. If not, earlier steps should be repeated until recognition is effected, as a student must recognize a sound before he can produce it.

Tongue Placement

Producing [θ] involves unfamiliar tongue placement — that is, between the teeth. Students should be taught to exaggerate this position in the beginning because only the most experienced speaker can produce the [θ] by placing the tongue against the back of the teeth and forcing air between the small opening between the teeth. (The symbol might suggest the mouth with the tongue out between the teeth).

If students produce a [t] instead of [θ], the teacher should point out the difference between the stop [t] and the continuent produced by friction. At this point the articulatory diagrams can again be used to good advantage by the instructor. If a mirror is available, students might watch themselves make the sounds (they could then practice outside of class using this same device.)

The teacher might evaluate students' production by asking simple questions like the following:

Who do you play with?
I play with _____.
Who do you eat with?
I eat with _____.
What do you see with?
I see with my eyes.
What do you hear with?
I hear with my ears.
Who do you go with?
I go with _____.

Students may practice in pairs or groups with one asking the question and another answering.

After the voiceless [θ] has been studied, its voiceless counterpart [ð] may be introduced. Mouth and tongue position remain the same; the difference is in voicing. This is done by vibrating the vocal hands. Students can, by placing their hands over their ear or upon their throats, feel this difference quite effectively.

Comparison

(Continued from Page 2)

As has been previously stated Tongan depends, for the most part on function words to carry the grammatical concepts of the language English, on the other hand, relies upon a mixture of grammatical devices and in this respect differs from Tongan in a number of ways. The devices used by Tongan include function words, inflection and, to a limited extent, word order. English uses function words, inflection, word order and context. The differences between Tongan and English with regard to types of grammatical devices used is best illustrated with a chart showing the type or types of device used in each language in conveying some of the major grammatical concepts. The chart is in no way intended to be exhaustive in treatment; it merely indicates the major types of grammatical device used in signalling some of the major grammatical concepts.

(See Chart Bottom Page 7)

It will be seen from the above chart that Tongan makes much more extensive use of function words in signalling grammatical concepts than does English. Of the nine grammatical concepts listed, three use function words exclusively in Tongan and three

Of Tongan and Samoan

others make fairly prominent use of function words. In no grammatical category of English are function words the sole device used and in only four of them do function words play a part.

To be sure, both Tongan and English make use of conjunctions and and prepositions of the traditional sort; however, English has a greater variety of such prepositions. Among the Tongan traditional prepositions may be listed ki "to," mei "from" and 'i "in or at". The possessive preposition 'o "of" with its allomorphic form 'a "of" also follows the traditional pattern of prepositions and parallels English in its usage. Many features of Tongan conjunctions and their use are similar to those of English although there are some differences too. The Tongan conjunctions pea "and", mo "and" and 'o "and" all may be followed directly by a pronoun subject in a number of situations where the pronoun would be omitted in English. For example, the English sentence He stood up and left may be expressed in Tongan as Na'a ne tu'u 'o ne 'alu (Na'a past tense, ne "he," tu'u "stand up," 'o "and," ne "he," and 'alu "go"). Although we can say in English He stood up and he left such a usage is rare; in Tongan, however, Na'a ne tu'u 'p ne 'alu is quite common. Consequently, a Tongan will be inclined to repeat the pronoun subject where it is unnecessary and perhaps even a bit awkward in English.

(To be continued in Volume 2, No. 1)

Grammatical Concept	English	Tongan
Tense	Function words	Inflection and Function words
Voice	Presence or absence of subject (i.e., context)	Inflection and Function Words
Verbal aspect	Use of verbs as nominals with possessive pronouns and use of function words	Inflection and Function Words
Comparison (Adjectives and adverbs)	Function words	Inflection and function words
Noun subjects and objects (function)	Function words	Word order
Pronoun subjects and objects	Function words and inflection	Inflection and word order
Possessive case of nouns	Prepositional phrase modifier	Inflection
Possessive case of pronouns	Inflection	Inflection
Modification	Function words, posrion and one inflectional suffix	Position (context)

An Invitation to Publish

Manuscripts for consideration for inclusion in the Fall and Winter numbers (Vol. 2) of the TESL Reporter may now be submitted to the editor. The basic format of forthcoming issues will require at least four major articles for each issue, two of an immediately practical nature and two on a more theoretical level, with occasional book reviews and news of TESL in Hawaii and across the Pacific.

The TESL Reporter has grown from its early circulation of 500 to nearly 1,000 for this issue. Future editions will also include an expansion in size to a full twelve pages. Some indication of the range of the present circulation is given in the following statistics: the Reporter reaches 24 states, 12 foreign countries, eight professional journals, and is widely circulated to libraries, principals, English Department chairmen, and many individual teachers here in Hawaii.

Wide publicity for the Reporter has resulted from short notices or reviews published in the Modern Language Journal and the NEA's 1968 Source Materials for Teachers of Foreign Languages. Requests for subscription average at least two a week.

Manuscripts should be typed, doubl spaced, and generally should not exceed 3-4 pages in length. We invit articles from University level sources, both professors and graduat students, from the public school both elementary and secondary. Art icles from teachers in the class room with problems and/or successe in TESL are particularly neede Deadline for the fall issue in Augus 25, 1968.

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